

Learning to Model and Plan for Wheeled Mobility on Vertically Challenging Terrain

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1 **Abstract:** Most autonomous navigation systems assume wheeled robots are rigid
2 bodies and their 2D planar workspaces can be divided into free spaces and obsta-
3 cles. However, recent wheeled mobility research, showing that wheeled platforms
4 have the potential of moving over vertically challenging terrain (e.g., rocky out-
5 croppings, rugged boulders, and fallen tree trunks), invalidate both assumptions.
6 Navigating off-road vehicle chassis with long suspension travel and low tire pres-
7 sure in places where the boundary between obstacles and free spaces is blurry
8 requires precise 3D modeling of the interaction between the chassis and the ter-
9 rain, which is complicated by suspension and tire deformation, varying tire-terrain
10 friction, vehicle weight distribution and momentum, etc. In this paper, we present
11 a learning approach to model wheeled mobility, i.e., in terms of vehicle-terrain
12 forward dynamics, and plan feasible, stable, and efficient motion to drive over
13 vertically challenging terrain without rolling over or getting stuck. We present
14 physical experiments on two wheeled robots and show that planning using our
15 learned model can achieve up to 60% improvement in navigation success rate and
16 46% reduction in unstable chassis roll and pitch angles.

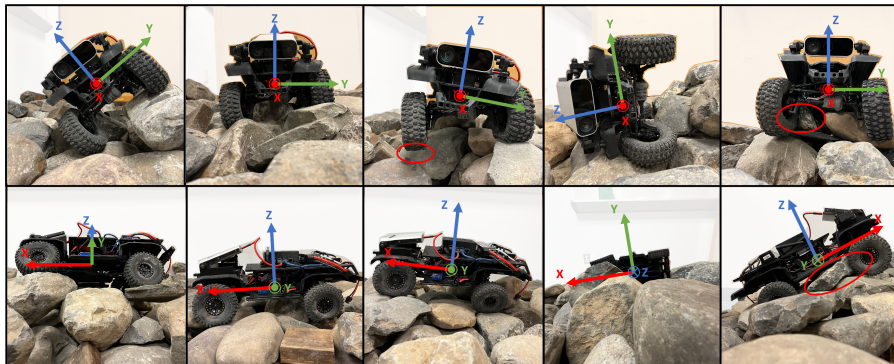


Figure 1: Front and side view (1st and 2nd row) of a wheeled robot navigating vertically challenging terrain: (from left to right) large roll angle, stable chassis, suspended wheel, roll-over, and get-stuck.

17 1 Introduction

18 Wheeled robots, arguably the most commonly used mobile robot type, have autonomously moved
19 from one point to another in a collision-free and efficient manner in the real world, e.g., transporting
20 materials in factories or warehouses [1], vacuuming our homes or offices [2], and delivering food
21 or packages on sidewalks [3]. Thanks to their simple motion mechanism, most wheeled robots are
22 treated as rigid bodies moving through planar workspaces. After tessellating their 2D workspaces
23 into obstacles and free spaces, classical planning algorithms plan feasible paths in the free spaces
24 that are free of collisions with the obstacles [4, 5, 6].

25 However, recent advances in wheeled mobility have shown that even conventional wheeled robots
 26 (i.e., without extensive hardware modification such as active suspensions [7, 8, 9] or adhesive ma-
 27 terials [10]) have previously unrealized potential to move over vertically challenging terrain (e.g.,
 28 in mountain passes with large boulders or dense forests with fallen trees) [11, 12, 13], where vehi-
 29 cle motion is no longer constrained to a 2D plane [14] (Figure 1). In those environments, neither
 30 assumptions of rigid vehicle chassis and clear delineation between obstacles and free spaces in a
 31 simple 2D plane are valid [15, 16, 17, 18]. Thanks to the long suspension travel and reduced tire
 32 pressure, off-road vehicle chassis are able to drive *over* obstacles (rather than to *avoid* them) and
 33 experience significant deformation to conform with the irregular terrain underneath the robot, which
 34 will be otherwise deemed as non-traversable according to conventional navigation systems. There-
 35 fore, autonomously navigating wheeled robots in vertically challenging terrain without rolling over
 36 or getting stuck requires a precise understanding of the 3D vehicle-terrain interaction.

37 In this paper, we investigate learning approaches to model vehicle-terrain interactions and plan vehi-
 38 cle trajectories to drive wheeled robots on vertically challenging terrain. Considering the difficulty
 39 in analytically modeling and computing vehicle poses using complex vehicle dynamics [19, 20, 21]
 40 in real time, we adopt a data-driven approach to model the forward vehicle-terrain dynamics based
 41 on terrain elevation maps along potential future trajectories. We develop a Wheeled Mobility on Ver-
 42 tically Challenging Terrain (WM-VCT) planner, which uses our learned model’s output in a novel
 43 cost function and produces feasible, stable, and efficient motion plans to autonomously navigate
 44 wheeled robots on vertically challenging terrain. We present extensive physical experiment results
 45 on two wheeled robot platforms and compare our learning approach against four existing baselines
 46 and show that our learned model can achieve up to 60% improvement in navigation success rate and
 47 46% reduction in unstable chassis roll and pitch angles.

48 2 Approach

49 The difficulties in navigating a wheeled mobile robot on vertically challenging terrain are two fold:
 50 (1) the high variability of vehicle poses due to the irregular terrain underneath the robot may over-
 51 turn the vehicle (rolling-over, 4th column in Figure 1); (2) not being able to identify that a certain
 52 terrain patch is beyond the robot’s mechanical limit and therefore needs to be circumvented may
 53 get the robot stuck (immobilization, 5th column in Figure 1). Therefore, this work takes a struc-
 54 tured learning approach to address both challenges by learning a vehicle-terrain forward dynamics
 55 model based on the vertically challenging terrain underneath the vehicle, using it to rollout sampled
 56 receding-horizon trajectories, and minimizing a cost function to reduce the chance of rolling-over
 57 and immobilization and to move the vehicle toward the goal.

58 2.1 Motion Planning Problem Formulation

59 Consider a discrete vehicle dynamics model of the form $\mathbf{x}_{t+1} = f(\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{u}_t)$, where $\mathbf{x}_t \in X$ and
 60 $\mathbf{u}_t \in U$ denote the state and input space respectively. In the normal case of 2D navigation planning
 61 (Figure 2 left), $X \subset \mathbb{SE}(2)$ and $X = X_{\text{free}} \cup X_{\text{obs}}$, where X_{free} and X_{obs} denote free spaces and
 62 obstacle regions. \mathbf{x}_t includes translation along the \mathbf{x} and \mathbf{y} axis (x and y) and the rotation along the
 63 $\mathbf{z} = \mathbf{x} \times \mathbf{y}$ axis (yaw) of a fixed global coordinate system. For input, $U \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ and $\mathbf{u}_t = (v_t, \omega_t)$,
 64 where v_t and ω_t are the linear and angular velocity. Finally, let $X_{\text{goal}} \subset X$ denote the goal region.
 65 The motion planning problem for the conventional 2D navigation case is to find a control function
 66 $u : \{t\}_{t=0}^{T-1} \rightarrow U$ that produces an optimal path $\mathbf{x}_t \in X_{\text{free}}, \forall t \in \{t\}_{t=0}^T$ from an initial state
 67 $\mathbf{x}_0 = \mathbf{x}_{\text{init}}$ to the goal region $\mathbf{x}_T \in X_{\text{goal}}$ that follows the system dynamics $f(\cdot, \cdot)$ and minimizes
 68 a given cost function $c(x)$, which maps from a state trajectory $x : \{t\}_{t=0}^T \rightarrow X$ to a positive real
 69 number. In many cases, $c(x)$ is simply the total time step T to reach the goal. Considering the
 70 difficulty in finding the absolute minimal-cost state trajectory, many mobile robots use sampling-
 71 based motion planners to find near-optimal solutions [22, 23].

72 Conversely, in our case of wheeled mobility on vertically challenging terrain, vehicle state $X \subset$
 73 $\mathbb{SE}(3)$ (i.e., translations and rotations along the \mathbf{x} , \mathbf{y} , and \mathbf{z} axis) with the same input $\mathbf{u}_t = (v_t, \omega_t) \in$

74 $U \subset \mathbb{R}^2$. The system dynamics enforces that \mathbf{x}_t is always “on top of” a subset of X_{obs} (i.e., vertically
 75 challenging terrain underneath and supporting the robot) or some boundary of X (i.e., on a flat
 76 ground) due to gravity, requiring a vehicle-terrain dynamics model (Figure 2 right).

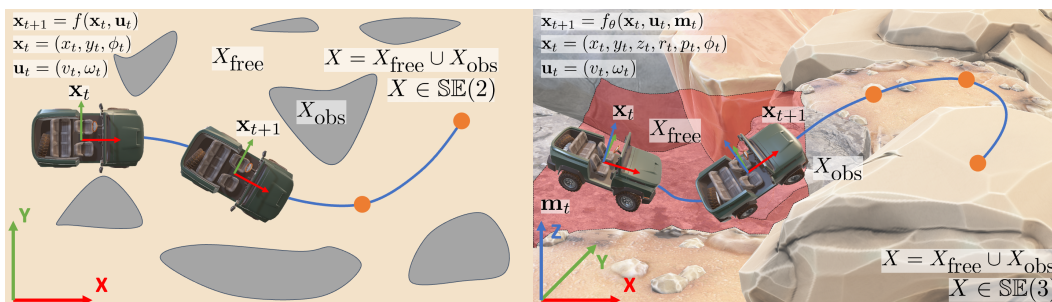


Figure 2: 2D navigation in $\mathbb{SE}(2)$ vs. navigation on vertically challenging terrain in $\mathbb{SE}(3)$.

77 2.2 Vehicle-Terrain Dynamics Model Learning

78 Compared to the simple 2D vehicle dynamics in $\mathbb{SE}(2)$, our non-rigid vehicle-terrain dynamics on
 79 vertically challenging terrain in $\mathbb{SE}(3)$ becomes more difficult to model, considering the complex
 80 interaction between the terrain and chassis via the long suspension travel and deflated tire pressure
 81 of off-road vehicles to assure adaptivity and traction (Figure 1). Therefore, this work adopts a data-
 82 driven approach to learn the vehicle-terrain dynamics model, which can be used to rollout trajectories
 83 for subsequent planning.

84 To be specific, $\mathbf{x}_t = (x_t, y_t, z_t, r_t, p_t, \phi_t)$, where the first and last three denote the translational (x ,
 85 y , z) and rotational (roll, pitch, yaw) component respectively along the x , y , and z axis. Note that
 86 unlike most 2D navigation problems in which the next vehicle state \mathbf{x}_{t+1} only relies on the current
 87 vehicle state \mathbf{x}_t and input \mathbf{u}_t alone, our next vehicle state is additionally affected by the vertically
 88 challenging terrain underneath and in front of the vehicle in the current time step, denoted as \mathbf{m}_t .
 89 Therefore, the forward dynamics on vertically challenging terrain can be formulated as

$$\mathbf{x}_{t+1} = f_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{u}_t, \mathbf{m}_t), \quad (1)$$

90 which is parameterized by θ and will be learned in a data-driven manner. Training data of size N
 91 can be collected by driving a wheeled robot on different vertically challenging terrain and recording
 92 the current and next state, current terrain, and current input: $\mathcal{D} = \{(\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{x}_{t+1}, \mathbf{m}_t, \mathbf{u}_t)_{t=1}^N\}$. Then
 93 we learn θ by minimizing a supervised loss function:

$$\theta^* = \arg \min_{\theta} \sum_{(\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{x}_{t+1}, \mathbf{m}_t, \mathbf{u}_t) \in \mathcal{D}} \|f_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{u}_t, \mathbf{m}_t) - \mathbf{x}_{t+1}\|_H, \quad (2)$$

94 where $\|\mathbf{v}\|_H = \mathbf{v}^T H \mathbf{v}$ is the norm induced by a positive definite matrix H , used to weigh the
 95 learning loss of the different dimensions of the vehicle state \mathbf{x}_t . The learned vehicle-terrain forward
 96 dynamics model, $f_{\theta}(\cdot, \cdot, \cdot)$, can then be used to rollout future trajectories for minimal-cost planning.

97 2.3 Sampling-Based Receding-Horizon Planning

98 We adopt a sampling-based receding-horizon planning paradigm, in which the planner first uni-
 99 formly samples input sequences up until a short horizon H , uses the learned model f_{θ} to rollout
 100 state trajectories, evaluates their cost based on a pre-defined cost function, finds the minimal-cost
 101 trajectory, executes the first input, replans, and thus gradually moves the horizon closer to the final
 102 goal. In this way, the modeling error can be corrected by frequent replanning. However, an under-
 103 actuated wheeled robot, i.e., using $\mathbf{u}_t = (v_t, \omega_t) \in U \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ to actuate $\mathbf{x}_t = (x_t, y_t, z_t, r_t, p_t, \phi_t) \in$
 104 $X \subset \mathbb{SE}(3)$ subject to f_{θ} , may easily end up in many terminal states outside of X_{goal} , which
 105 the vehicle cannot escape and recover from, i.e., rolling over or immobilization (getting stuck)
 106 due to excessive roll and pitch angles, irregular terrain geometry, and large height change, e.g.,

107 on a large rock. Therefore, while our goal is still to minimize the traversal time T leading to
 108 X_{goal} , for our receding-horizon planner, we seek to optimize five cost terms on a state trajectory
 109 $\mathbf{x}_{0:H} = \{\mathbf{x}_t\}_{t=0}^H$, s.t., $\mathbf{x}_{t+1} = f_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{u}_t, \mathbf{m}_t)$, $\forall t < H$, which starts at the current time 0 and ends
 110 at the horizon H , to avoid these two types of terminal states on vertical challenging terrain and also
 111 move the robot towards the goal:

$$c(\mathbf{x}_{0:H}) = w_1 c_{\text{rp}}(\mathbf{x}_{0:H}) + w_2 c_{\text{tg}}(\mathbf{x}_{0:H}) + w_3 c_{\text{hc}}(\mathbf{x}_{0:H}) + w_4 c_{\text{mb}}(\mathbf{x}_{0:H}) + w_5 c_{\text{est}}(x_H), \quad (3)$$

112 where $c_{\text{rp}}(\cdot)$, $c_{\text{tg}}(\cdot)$, and $c_{\text{hc}}(\cdot)$ denote the cost corresponding to the robot’s (extensive) roll and pitch
 113 angle, (irregular) underneath terrain geometry, and (large) terrain height change respectively; $c_{\text{mb}}(\cdot)$
 114 is the cost of moving out of the observable map boundary; $c_{\text{est}}(\cdot)$ is the estimated cost to reach the
 115 final goal region X_{goal} from the state on the horizon x_H , which can be computed by the Euclidean
 116 distance $c_{\text{est}}(x_H) = \|x_H - x_G\|_2$, where x_G is any state inside X_{goal} . w_1 to w_5 are corresponding
 117 weights for the cost terms.

118 3 Experiments and Results

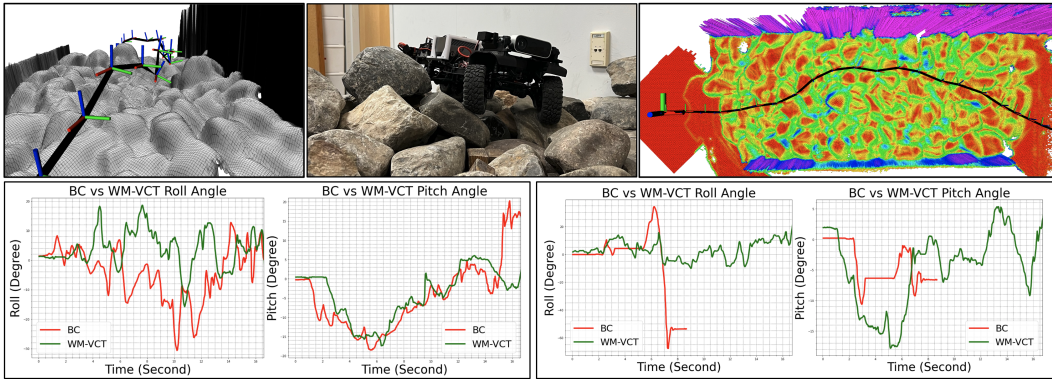


Figure 3: Physical Experiments

119 Our proposed WM-VCT navigation planner is compared against a Behavior Cloning (BC) base-
 120 line [14]. In Figure 3, we show the V6W navigating the testbed (top middle), front (top left) and top
 121 (top right) view of the elevation map with the planned 6-DoF vehicle state trajectory, and pitch and
 122 roll values in two example environments (bottom left and right). In the first environment, while both
 123 BC (red) and WM-VCT (green) succeed, the former experiences larger roll and pitch values; in the
 124 second environment, BC (red) fails due to the excessive roll angle around 7.5s, while WM-VCT is
 125 able to successfully navigate through.

126 Table 1 shows our experiment results in three obstacle courses with three difficulty levels, five tri-
 127 als each. In general, our WM-VCT planner achieves better results on both six-wheeled and four-
 128 wheeled platforms, compared to BC, the only baseline that can occasionally navigate through, in
 129 terms of navigation success rate and average roll and pitch angles. In general, WM-VCT finishes
 130 more trials, is slower but more stable, and achieves lower roll and pitch angles overall.

Table 1: Number of successful trials, mean successful traversal time, and average roll/pitch angles.

	V6W		V4W	
	BC	WM-VCT	BC	WM-VCT
Easy	5, 15.8s, 7.3°/7.9°	5, 24s, 5.1°/7.5°	2, 18.0s, 9.2°/17.5°	2, 27.5s, 5.8°/9.5°
Medium	3, 17.0s, 9.4°/8.3°	4, 24.5s, 6.1°/8.6°	1, 16.0s, 12°/8.5°	2, 32.5s, 7.9°/11.4°
Difficult	1, 20.0s, 8.3°/10.7°	4, 22.7s, 6.2°/7.4°	N/A	N/A

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